

Norwegian language


Norwegian (Norwegian: *norsk*) is a North Germanic language spoken mainly in Norway, where it is the official language. Along with Swedish and Danish, Norwegian forms a dialect continuum of more or less mutually intelligible local and regional varieties; some Norwegian and Swedish dialects, in particular, are very close. These Scandinavian languages, together with Faroese and Icelandic as well as some extinct languages, constitute the North Germanic languages. Faroese and Icelandic are not mutually intelligible with Norwegian in their spoken form because continental Scandinavian has diverged from them. While the two Germanic languages with the greatest numbers of speakers, English and German, have close similarities with Norwegian, neither is mutually intelligible with it. Norwegian is a descendant of Old Norse, the common language of the Germanic peoples living in Scandinavia during the Viking Era.

Today there are two official forms of *written* Norwegian, *Bokmål* (literally "book tongue") and *Nynorsk* ("new Norwegian"), each with its own variants. *Bokmål* developed from the Dano-Norwegian koiné language that evolved under the union of Denmark-Norway in the 16th and 17th centuries, while *Nynorsk* was developed based upon a collective of spoken Norwegian dialects. Norwegian is one of the two official languages in Norway. The other is Sami, spoken by some members of the Sami people, mostly in the Northern part of Norway. Norwegian and Sami are not mutually intelligible, as Sami belongs to the Finno-Ugric group of languages. Sami is spoken by less than one percent of people in Norway.

Norwegian is one of the working languages of the Nordic Council. Under the Nordic Language Convention, citizens of the Nordic countries who speak Norwegian have the opportunity to use their native language when interacting with official bodies in other Nordic countries without being liable to any interpretation or translation costs.^{[3][4]}

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Norwegian	
 <div><i>norsk</i></div>	
Pronunciation	<div>[ˈnɔʂk] (East, Central and North)<div>[ˈnɔʁsk] (West and South)</div></div>
Native to	Norway
Ethnicity	Norwegians
Native speakers	5.32 million (2020) ^[1]
Language family	<div>Indo-European<ul style="list-style-type: none">Germanic<ul style="list-style-type: none">North Germanic<ul style="list-style-type: none">West Scandinavian (<i>disputed</i>)<ul style="list-style-type: none">Norwegian</div>
Early forms	<div>Old Norse<ul style="list-style-type: none">Old West Norse<ul style="list-style-type: none">Old Norwegian<ul style="list-style-type: none">Middle Norwegian</div>
Standard forms	<div>written Bokmål (official)<ul style="list-style-type: none">written Riksmål (unofficial)written Nynorsk (official)<ul style="list-style-type: none">written Høgnorsk (unofficial)</div>
Writing system	Latin (Norwegian alphabet) <div>Norwegian Braille</div>
Official status	
<div>Official language in</div>	<div> Norway<div> <i>Nordic Council</i></div></div>
Regulated by	Language Council of Norway (Bokmål and Nynorsk) <div>Norwegian Academy (Riksmål)</div> Ivar Aasen-sambandet (Høgnorsk)
Language codes	
ISO 639-1	<div>no – inclusive code</div> <div>Individual codes:<div>nbBokmål</div></div> <div>nnNynorsk</div>
ISO 639-2	<div><div>nor (https://www.loc.gov/standards/iso639-2/php/langcodes_name.php?code_ID=331) – inclusive code</div><div>Individual codes:<div>nob (http://www.sil.org/iso639-3/documentation.asp?id=nob) – Bokmål</div></div></div>

<div>Nouns</div> <div>Genitive of nouns</div> <div>Adjectives</div> <div>Attributive adjectives</div> <div>Definite inflection</div> <div>Indefinite inflection</div> <div>Predicative adjectives</div> <div>Verbs</div> <div>Ergative verbs</div> <div>Pronouns</div> <div>Ordering of possessive pronouns</div> <div>Determiners</div> <div>Numerals</div> <div>Particle classes</div> <div>Adverbs</div> <div>Compound words</div> <div>Syntax</div> <div>Vocabulary</div> <div>See also</div> <div>References</div> <div>Bibliography</div> <div>External links</div>	<div>nno (http://www.sil.org/iso639-3/documentation.asp?id=nno) – Nynorsk</div> <div>ISO 639-3</div> <div>nor – inclusive code</div> <div>Individual codes:</div> <div>nob – Bokmål</div> <div>nno – Nynorsk</div> <div>Glottolog</div> <div>norw1258 (http://glottolog.org/resource/linguoid/id/norw1258)^[2]</div> <div>Linguasphere</div> <div>52-AAA-ba to -be;</div> <div>52-AAA-cf to -cg</div> <div>  <p>Areas where Norwegian is spoken, including North Dakota (where 0.4% of the population speaks Norwegian), western Wisconsin (<0.1% of the population), and Minnesota (0.1% of the population) (Data: U.S. Census 2000).</p> </div>
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History

Origins

Like most of the languages in Europe, the Norwegian language descends from the Proto-Indo-European language. As early Indo-Europeans spread across Europe, they became isolated and new languages evolved. In the northwest of Europe, the West Germanic languages evolved, which would eventually become English, Dutch, German, and the North Germanic languages, of which Norwegian is one.

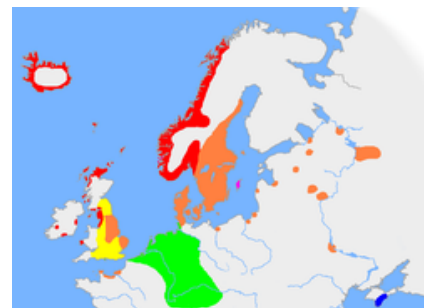
Proto-Norse is thought to have evolved as a northern dialect of Proto-Germanic during the first centuries AD in what is today Southern Sweden. It is the earliest stage of a characteristically North Germanic language, and the language attested in the Elder Futhark inscriptions, the oldest form of the runic alphabets. A number of inscriptions are memorials to the dead, while others are magical in content. The oldest are carved on loose objects, while later ones are chiseled in runestones.^[5] They are the oldest written record of any Germanic language.

Around 800 AD, the script was simplified to the Younger Futhark, and inscriptions became more abundant. At the same time, the beginning of the Viking Age led to the spread of Old Norse to Iceland, Greenland, and the Faroe Islands. Viking colonies also existed in parts of the British Isles, France (Normandy), North America, and Kievan Rus. In all of these places except Iceland and the Faroes, Old Norse speakers went extinct or were absorbed into the local population.^[5]

The Roman alphabet

Around 1030, Christianity came to Scandinavia, bringing with it an influx of Latin borrowings and the Roman alphabet. These new words were related to church practices and ceremonies, although many other loanwords related to general culture also entered the language.

The Scandinavian languages at this time are not considered to be separate languages, although there were minor differences among what are customarily called Old Icelandic, Old Norwegian, Old Gutnish, Old Danish, and Old Swedish.



The approximate extent of Old Norse and related languages in the early 10th century:

- ☐ Old West Norse dialect
- ☐ Old East Norse dialect
- ☐ Old Gutnish
- ☐ Old English
- ☐ Crimean Gothic
- ☐ Other Germanic languages with which Old Norse still retained some mutual intelligibility

Low German influence

The economic and political dominance of the Hanseatic League between 1250 and 1450 in the main Scandinavian cities brought large Middle Low German-speaking populations to Norway. The influence of their language on Scandinavian is similar to that of French on English after the Norman conquest.^[5]

Dano-Norwegian

In the late Middle Ages, dialects began to develop in Scandinavia because the population was rural and little travel occurred. When the Reformation came from Germany, Martin Luther's High German translation of the Bible was quickly translated into Swedish, Danish, and Icelandic. Norway entered a union with Denmark in 1397 and Danish became the language of the elite, the church, literature, and the law. When the union with Denmark ended in 1814, the Dano-Norwegian koiné had become the mother tongue of many Norwegians.^[6]

Danish to Norwegian

From the 1840s, some writers experimented with a Norwegianised Danish by incorporating words that were descriptive of Norwegian scenery and folk life, and adopting a more Norwegian syntax. Knud Knudsen proposed to change spelling and inflection in accordance with the Dano-Norwegian *koiné*, known as "cultivated everyday speech." A small adjustment in this direction was implemented in the first official reform of the Danish language in Norway in 1862 and more extensively after his death in two official reforms in 1907 and 1917.

Meanwhile, a nationalistic movement strove for the development of a new written Norwegian. Ivar Aasen, a botanist and self-taught linguist, began his work to create a new Norwegian language at the age of 22. He traveled around the country collecting words and examples of grammar from the dialects and comparing the dialects among the different regions. He examined the development of Icelandic, which had largely escaped the influences under which Norwegian had come. He called his work, which was published in several books from 1848 to 1873, Landsmål, meaning "national language". The name "Landsmål" is sometimes interpreted as "rural language" or "country language", but this was clearly not Aasen's intended meaning.

The name of the Danish language in Norway was a topic of hot dispute through the 19th century. Its proponents claimed that it was a language common to Norway and Denmark, and no more Danish than Norwegian. The proponents of Landsmål thought that the Danish character of the language should not be concealed. In 1899, Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson proposed the neutral name Riksmål, meaning national language like Landsmål, and this was officially adopted along with the 1907 spelling reform. The name "Riksmål" is sometimes interpreted as "state language", but this meaning is secondary at best. (Compare to Danish rigsmål from where the name was borrowed.)

After the personal union with Sweden was dissolved in 1905, both languages were developed further and reached what is now considered their classic forms after a reform in 1917. Riksmål was in 1929 officially renamed *Bokmål* (literally "book language"), and Landsmål to *Nynorsk* (literally "new Norwegian"). A proposition to substitute Danish-Norwegian (*dansk-norsk*) for *Bokmål* lost in parliament by a single vote. The name *Nynorsk*, the linguistic term for modern Norwegian, was chosen to contrast with Danish and emphasis on the historical connection to Old Norwegian. Today, this meaning is often lost, and it is commonly mistaken as a "new" Norwegian in contrast to the "real" Norwegian Bokmål.

Bokmål and Nynorsk were made closer by a reform in 1938. This was a result of a state policy to merge Nynorsk and Bokmål into a single language, to be called *Samnorsk*. A 1946 poll showed that this policy was supported by 79% of Norwegians at the time. However, opponents of the official policy still managed to create a massive protest movement against *Samnorsk* in the 1950s, fighting in particular the use of "radical" forms in Bokmål text books in schools. In the reform in 1959, the 1938 reform was partially reversed in Bokmål, but Nynorsk was changed further towards Bokmål. Since then Bokmål has reverted even further toward traditional Riksmål, while Nynorsk still adheres to the 1959 standard. Therefore, a small minority of Nynorsk enthusiasts use a more conservative standard called Høgnorsk. The Samnorsk policy had little influence after 1960, and was officially abandoned in 2002.

Phonology

While the sound systems of Norwegian and Swedish are similar, considerable variation exists among the dialects.

Consonants

Consonant phonemes of Urban East Norwegian

	Labial	Dental/ Alveolar	Palato- alveolar	Retroflex	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	m	n		ɳ	ŋ	
Stop	p b	t d		ʈ ɖ	k ɡ	
Fricative	f	s	ʃ	ʂ		h
Approximant	ʊ	ɭ		ɭ	j	
Tap		ɾ				

The retroflex consonants only appear in East Norwegian dialects as a result of sandhi, combining /ɾ/ with /d/, /l/, /n/, /s/, and /t/.

The realization of the rhotic /ɾ/ depends on the dialect. In Eastern, Central, and Northern Norwegian dialects, it is a tap [ɾ], whereas in Western and Southern Norway, and for some speakers also in Eastern Norway, it is uvular [χ] or [ʁ]. And in the dialects of North-Western Norway, it is realized as [r], much like the trilled <rr> of Spanish.

Vowels

Vowel phonemes of Urban East Norwegian

Orthography	IPA	Description
a	/ɑ/	Open back unrounded
ai	/ɑɪ/	
au	/æʊ/	
e (short)	/ɛ/, /æ/	open mid-front unrounded
e (long)	/e/, /æ/	close-mid front unrounded
e (weak)	/ə/	schwa (mid central unrounded)
ei	/æɪ/, /ɛɪ/	
i (short)	/ɪ/	close front unrounded
i (long)	/i/	close front unrounded
o	/u, o, ɔ/	close back rounded
oi	/ɔɪ/	
u	/ʊ/, /u/	close central rounded (close front extra rounded)
y (short)	/ʏ/	close front rounded (close front less rounded)
y (long)	/y/	close front rounded (close front less rounded)
æ	/æ/, /ɛ/	near open front unrounded
ø	/ø/	close-mid front rounded
øy	/øɪ/	
å	/ɔ/	open-mid back rounded

Accent

Norwegian is a pitch-accent language with two distinct pitch patterns, like Swedish. They are used to differentiate two-syllable words with otherwise identical pronunciation. For example, in many East Norwegian dialects, the word "*bønder*" (farmers) is pronounced using the simpler tone 1, while "*bønner*" (beans or prayers) uses the more complex tone 2. Though spelling differences occasionally differentiate written words, in most cases the minimal pairs are written alike, since written Norwegian has no explicit accent marks. In most eastern low-tone dialects, accent 1 uses a low flat pitch in the first syllable, while accent 2 uses a high, sharply falling pitch in the first syllable and a low pitch in the beginning of the second syllable. In both accents, these pitch movements are followed by a rise of intonational nature (phrase accent)—the size (and presence) of which signals emphasis or focus, and corresponds in function to the normal accent in languages that lack lexical tone, such as English. That rise culminates in the final syllable of an accentual phrase, while the utterance-final fall common in most languages is either very small or absent.

There are significant variations in pitch accent between dialects. Thus, in most of western and northern Norway (the so-called high-pitch dialects) accent 1 is falling, while accent 2 is rising in the first syllable and falling in the second syllable or somewhere around the syllable boundary. The pitch accents (as well as the peculiar phrase accent in the low-tone dialects) give the Norwegian language a "singing" quality that makes it easy to distinguish from other languages. Accent 1 generally occurs in words that were monosyllabic in Old Norse, and accent 2 in words that were polysyllabic.

Written language

Alphabet

The Norwegian alphabet has 29 letters.^[7]



Danish keyboard with keys for Æ, Ø, and Å. On Norwegian keyboards, the Æ and Ø are swapped.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z	Æ	Ø	Å
a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z	æ	ø	å

The letters *c*, *q*, *w*, *x* and *z* are only used in loanwords. As loanwords are assimilated into Norwegian, their spelling might change to reflect Norwegian pronunciation and the principles of Norwegian orthography, e.g. *zebra* in Norwegian is written *sebra*. Due to historical reasons, some otherwise Norwegian family names are also written using these letters.

Some letters may be modified by diacritics: *é*, *è*, *ê*, *ó*, *ò*, and *ô*. In Nynorsk, *ì* and *ù* and *ỳ* are occasionally seen as well. The diacritics are not compulsory, but may in a few cases distinguish between different meanings of the word, e.g.: *for* (for/to), *fôr* (went), *fòr* (furrow) and *fôr* (fodder). Loanwords may be spelled with other diacritics, most notably *ü*, *á* and *â*.

Bokmål and Nynorsk

As established by law and government policy, the two official forms of *written* Norwegian are *Bokmål* (literally "book tongue") and *Nynorsk* ("new Norwegian"). The official Norwegian Language Council (*Språkrådet*) is responsible for regulating the two forms, and recommends the terms "Norwegian Bokmål" and "Norwegian Nynorsk" in English. Two other written forms without official status also exist, one, called *Riksmål* ("national language"), is today to a large extent the same language as Bokmål though somewhat closer to the Danish language. It is regulated by the unofficial Norwegian Academy, which translates the name as "Standard Norwegian". The other is *Høgnorsk* ("High Norwegian"), a more purist form of Nynorsk, which maintains the language in an original form as given by Ivar Aasen and rejects most of the reforms from the 20th century; this form has limited use.

Nynorsk and Bokmål provide standards for how to write Norwegian, but not for how to speak the language. No standard of spoken Norwegian is officially sanctioned, and most Norwegians speak their own dialects in all circumstances. Thus, unlike in many other countries, the use of any Norwegian dialect, whether it coincides with the written norms or not, is accepted as correct *spoken* Norwegian. However, in areas where East Norwegian dialects are used, a tendency exists to accept a *de facto* spoken standard for this particular regional dialect, Urban East Norwegian or Standard East Norwegian (Norwegian: *Standard Østnorsk*), in which the vocabulary coincides with Bokmål.^{[8][9]} Outside Eastern Norway, this spoken variation is not used.

From the 16th to the 19th centuries, Danish was the standard written language of Norway. As a result, the development of modern written Norwegian has been subject to strong controversy related to nationalism, rural versus urban discourse, and Norway's literary history. Historically, Bokmål is a Norwegianised variety of Danish, while Nynorsk is a language form based on Norwegian dialects and puristic opposition to Danish. The now-abandoned official policy to merge Bokmål and Nynorsk into one common language called *Samnorsk* through a series of spelling reforms has created a wide spectrum of varieties of both Bokmål and Nynorsk. The unofficial form known as *Riksmål* is considered more conservative than Bokmål and is far closer to Danish while the unofficial *Høgnorsk* is more conservative than Nynorsk and is far closer to Faroese, Icelandic and Old Norse.

Norwegians are educated in both Bokmål and Nynorsk. The language form that is not registered as the main language form of a Norwegian student will be a mandatory school subject in both high school and elementary school for the student, which is called *Sidemål*.^[10] For instance, a Norwegian whose main language form is Bokmål will study Nynorsk as a mandatory subject

throughout both elementary and high school. A 2005 poll indicates that 86.3% use primarily Bokmål as their daily written language, 5.5% use both Bokmål and Nynorsk, and 7.5% use primarily Nynorsk. Thus, 13% are frequently *writing* Nynorsk, though the majority *speak* dialects that resemble Nynorsk more closely than Bokmål.^[11] Broadly speaking, Nynorsk writing is widespread in western Norway, though not in major urban areas, and also in the upper parts of mountain valleys in the southern and eastern parts of Norway. Examples are Setesdal, the western part of Telemark county (*fylke*) and several municipalities in Hallingdal, Valdres, and Gudbrandsdalen. It is little used elsewhere, but 30–40 years ago, it also had strongholds in many rural parts of Trøndelag (mid-Norway) and the southern part of northern Norway (Nordland county). Today, not only is Nynorsk the official language of four of the 19 Norwegian counties, but also of many municipalities in five other counties. NRK, the Norwegian broadcasting corporation, broadcasts in both Bokmål and Nynorsk, and all governmental agencies are required to support both written languages. Bokmål is used in 92% of all written publications, and Nynorsk in 8% (2000).

Like some other European countries, Norway has an official "advisory board"— Språkrådet (Norwegian Language Council)—that determines, after approval from the Ministry of Culture, official spelling, grammar, and vocabulary for the Norwegian language. The board's work has been subject to considerable controversy throughout the years.

Both Nynorsk and Bokmål have a great variety of optional forms. The Bokmål that uses the forms that are close to Riksmål is called *moderate* or *conservative*, depending on one's viewpoint, while the Bokmål that uses the forms that are close to Nynorsk is called *radical*. Nynorsk has forms that are close to the original Landsmål and forms that are close to Bokmål.

Riksmål

Opponents of the spelling reforms aimed at bringing Bokmål closer to Nynorsk have retained the name Riksmål and employ spelling and grammar that predate the Samnorsk movement. Riksmål and conservative versions of Bokmål have been the *de facto* standard written language of Norway for most of the 20th century, being used by large newspapers, encyclopedias, and a significant proportion of the population of the capital Oslo, surrounding areas, and other urban areas, as well as much of the literary tradition. Since the reforms of 1981 and 2003 (effective in 2005), the official Bokmål can be adapted to be almost identical with modern Riksmål. The differences between written Riksmål and Bokmål are comparable to American and British English differences.

Riksmål is regulated by the Norwegian Academy, which determines acceptable spelling, grammar, and vocabulary.

Høgnorsk

There is also an unofficial form of Nynorsk, called *Høgnorsk*, discarding the post-1917 reforms, and thus close to Ivar Aasen's original Landsmål. It is supported by Ivar Aasen-sambandet, but has found no widespread use.

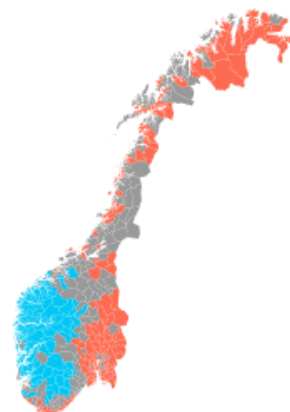
Current usage

In 2010 86.5% of the pupils in the primary and lower secondary schools in Norway receive education in Bokmål, while 13.0% receive education in Nynorsk. From the eighth grade onwards pupils are required to learn both. Out of the 431 municipalities in Norway, 161 have declared that they wish to communicate with the central authorities in Bokmål, 116 (representing 12% of the population) in Nynorsk, while 156 are neutral. Of 4,549 state publications in 2000 8% were in Nynorsk, and 92% in Bokmål. The large national newspapers (Aftenposten, Dagbladet, and VG) are published in Bokmål or Riksmål. Some major regional newspapers (including Bergens Tidende and Stavanger Aftenblad), many political journals, and many local newspapers use both Bokmål and Nynorsk.

A newer trend is to write in dialect for informal use. When writing an SMS, Facebook update, or fridge note, most younger people write the way they talk rather than using Bokmål or Nynorsk.^{[12][13]}

Dialects

There is general agreement that a wide range of differences makes it difficult to estimate the number of different Norwegian dialects. Variations in grammar, syntax, vocabulary, and pronunciation cut across geographical boundaries and can create a distinct dialect at the level of farm clusters. Dialects are in some cases so dissimilar as to be unintelligible to unfamiliar listeners. Many linguists note a trend toward regionalization of dialects that diminishes the differences at such local levels; there is, however, a renewed interest in preserving dialects.



Map of the official language forms of Norwegian municipalities. Red is Bokmål, blue is Nynorsk and gray depicts neutral areas.

Examples

Below are a few sentences giving an indication of the differences between Bokmål and Nynorsk, compared to the conservative (closer to Danish) form Riksmål, Danish, as well as Old Norse, Swedish, Faroese, Icelandic (the living language grammatically closest to Old Norse), Old English and some modern West Germanic languages:

Language	Phrase			
Modern English	I come from Norway	What is his name?	This is a horse	The rainbow has many colours
Danish	Jeg kommer fra Norge	Hvad hedder han?	Dette er en hest	Regnbuen har mange farver
Norwegian Riksmål		Hva heter han?		Regnbuen har mange farger
Norwegian Bokmål				Regnbogen har mange farger
Norwegian Nynorsk	Eg kjem frå Noreg	Kva heiter han?	Dette er ein hest	Regnbogen har mange fargar/leter = Regnbogen er mangleta
Norwegian Høgnorsk			Detta er ein hest	Regnbogen hev mange leter = Regnbogen er manglita
Swedish	Jag kommer från Norge	Vad heter han?	Detta är en häst	Regnbågen har många färger
Old Norse	Ek kem frá Noregi	Hvat heitir hann?	Þetta er hross / Þessi er hestr	Regnboginn er marglitr
Icelandic	Ég kem frá Noregi	Hvað heitir hann?	Þetta er hestur/hross	Regnboginn er marglitur
Faroese	Eg komi úr Noregi/Norra	Hvussu eitur hann?	Hetta er eitt ross / ein hestur	Ælabogin hevur nógvar litir / Ælabogin er marglittur
Old English	lc cume fram Norwegan	Hwat hāteþ he?	þis is hors	Regnboga hæfð manige hiw
German	Ich komme aus Norwegen	Wie heißt er?	Das ist ein Pferd	Der Regenbogen hat viele Farben
Dutch	Ik kom uit Noorwegen	Hoe heet hij?	Dit is een paard	De regenboog heeft veel (vele) kleuren
Afrikaans	Ek kom van Noorweë	Wat is sy naam? Hoe heet hy? (more archaic and formal)	Dit is 'n perd	Die reënboog het baie kleure
West Frisian	Ik kom út Noarwegen	Hoe hjit er?	Dit is in hynder	De reinbôge hat in protte kleuren
Low Saxon	Ik kom üüt Noorwegen	Ho hit e?	Dit is een peerd	De regenboge hev völe klören



The map shows the division of the Norwegian dialects within the main groups.

Grammar

Nouns

Norwegian nouns are inflected for number (singular/plural) and for definiteness (indefinite/definite). In a few dialects, definite nouns are also inflected for the dative case.

Norwegian nouns belong to three noun classes (genders): masculine, feminine and neuter. All feminine nouns can optionally be inflected using masculine noun class morphology in Bokmål due to its Danish heritage.^[14] In comparison, the use of all three genders (including the feminine) is mandatory in Nynorsk.^[15]

All Norwegian dialects have traditionally retained all the three grammatical genders from Old Norse to some extent.^[16] The only exceptions are the dialect of Bergen and a few upper class sociolects at the west end of Oslo that have completely lost the feminine gender.^{[16][17]}

Examples, nouns in Bokmål

	Singular		Plural	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
masculine	<i>en båt</i>	<i>båten</i>	<i>båter</i>	<i>båtene</i>
	a boat	the boat	boats	the boats
feminine	<i>ei/en jente</i>	<i>jenta/jenten</i>	<i>jenter</i>	<i>jentene</i>
	a girl	the girl	girls	the girls
neuter	<i>et hus</i>	<i>huset</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>husa/husene</i>
	a house	the house	houses	the houses

Norwegian and other Scandinavian languages use a suffix to indicate definiteness of a noun, unlike English which has a separate article *the* to indicate the same.

In general, almost all nouns in Bokmål follow these patterns^[18] (like the words in the examples above):

Nouns in Bokmål

	Singular		Plural	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
masculine	en	-en	-er	-ene
feminine	ei/en	-a/-en		
neuter	et	-et	-/-er	-a/-ene

In contrast, almost all nouns in Nynorsk follow these patterns^[15] (the noun gender system is more pronounced than in Bokmål):

Nouns in Nynorsk

	Singular		Plural	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
masculine	ein	-en	-ar	-ane
feminine	ei	-a	-er	-ene
neuter	eit	-et	-	-a

Examples, nouns in Nynorsk

	Singular		Plural	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
masculine	<i>ein båt</i>	<i>båten</i>	<i>båtar</i>	<i>båtane</i>
	a boat	the boat	boats	the boats
feminine	<i>ei jente</i>	<i>jenta</i>	<i>jenter</i>	<i>jentene</i>
	a girl	the girl	girls	the girls
neuter	<i>eit hus</i>	<i>huset</i>	<i>hus</i>	<i>husa</i>
	a house	the house	houses	the houses

Feminine nouns cannot be inflected using masculine noun class morphology in Nynorsk, unlike Bokmål. That is, all feminine nouns in Nynorsk must follow the prescribed inflection pattern above.

There is in general no way to infer what grammatical gender a specific noun has, but there are some patterns of nouns where the gender can be inferred. For instance, all nouns ending in *-nad* will be masculine in both Bokmål and Nynorsk (for instance the noun *jobbsøknad*, which means job application). Most nouns ending in *-ing* will be feminine, like the noun *forventning* (expectation).

There are some common irregular nouns, many of which are irregular in both Bokmål and Nynorsk, like the following:

Irregular noun, fot (foot)^[19]

	Singular		Plural	
	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite	Definite
Bokmål:	<i>en fot</i>	<i>foten</i>	<i>føtter</i>	<i>føttene</i>
Nynorsk:	<i>ein fot</i>	<i>foten</i>	<i>føter</i>	<i>føtene</i>
English:	a foot	the foot	feet	the feet

In Nynorsk, even though the irregular word *fot* is masculine, it is inflected like a feminine word in the plural. Another word with the same irregular inflection is *son* - *søner* (son - sons).

In Nynorsk, nouns ending in *-ing* typically have masculine plural inflections, like the word *dronning* in the following table. But they are treated as feminine nouns in every other way.^[15]

Nynorsk, some irregular nouns

Gender	Nouns ending with -ing				English
feminine	<i>ei dronning</i>	<i>dronninga</i>	<i>dronningar</i>	<i>dronningane</i>	queen
Plurals with <u>umlaut</u> (these irregularities also exist in Bokmål)					
feminine	<i>ei bok</i>	<i>boka</i>	<i>bøker</i>	<i>bøkene</i>	book
	<i>ei hand</i>	<i>handa</i>	<i>hender</i>	<i>hendene</i>	hand
	<i>ei stong</i>	<i>stonga</i>	<i>stenger</i>	<i>stengene</i>	rod
	<i>ei tå</i>	<i>tåa</i>	<i>tær</i>	<i>tærne</i>	toe
Plurals with no ending (these irregularities also exist in Bokmål)					
masculine	<i>ein ting</i>	<i>tingen</i>	<i>ting</i>	<i>tinga</i>	thing

Genitive of nouns

In general, the genitive case has died out in modern Norwegian and there are only some remnants of it in certain expressions: *til fjells* (to the mountains), *til sjøs* (to the sea). To show ownership, there is an enclitic *-s* similar to English *-s*; *Sondres flotte bil* (Sondre's nice car, Sondre being a personal name). There are also reflexive possessive pronouns, *sin*, *si*, *sitt*, *sine*; *Det er Sondre sitt* (It is Sondre's). In both Bokmål and modern Nynorsk, there is often a mix of both of these to mark possession, though it is more common in Nynorsk to use the reflexive pronouns; in Nynorsk use of the reflexive possessive pronouns is generally encouraged to avoid mixing the enclitic *-s* with the historical grammatical case remnants of the language. The reflexive pronouns agree in gender and number with the noun.

The enclitic *-s* in Norwegian evolved as a shorthand expression for the possessive pronouns *sin*, *si*, *sitt* and *sine*.

Examples

Norwegian (with pronoun)	Norwegian (with enclitic 's)	English
Jenta sin bil	Jentas bil	The girl's car
Mannen si kone	Mannens kone	The man's wife
Gutten sitt leketøy	Guttens leketøy	The boy's toy
Kona sine barn	Konas barn	The wife's children
Det er statsministeren sitt	Det er statsministerens	It is the prime minister's

Adjectives

Norwegian adjectives, like those of Swedish and Danish, inflect for definiteness, gender, number and for comparison (affirmative/comparative/superlative). Inflection for definiteness follows two paradigms, called "weak" and "strong", a feature shared among the Germanic languages.

The following table summarizes the inflection of adjectives in Norwegian. The indefinite affirmative inflection can vary between adjectives, but in general the paradigm illustrated below is the most common.^[20]

Inflection patterns for adjectives in Norwegian

	<u>Definite</u>			<u>Indefinite</u>					
	<u>Affirmative</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>	<u>Affirmative</u>				<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
				<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>Neuter</u>	<u>Plural</u>		
Bokmål	-e	-ere	-este	-	-	-t	-e	-ere	-est
Nynorsk	-e	-are	-aste	-	-	-t	-e	-are	-ast

Predicate adjectives follow only the indefinite inflection table. Unlike attributive adjectives, they are not inflected for definiteness.

Adjective forms, examples: *grønn/grøn* (green), *pen* (pretty), *stjålet/stolne* (stolen)

	<u>Definite</u>			<u>Indefinite</u>					
	<u>Affirmative</u>	<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>	<u>Affirmative</u>				<u>Comparative</u>	<u>Superlative</u>
				<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>Neuter</u>	<u>Plural</u>		
Bokmål	<i>grønne</i>	<i>grønnere</i>	<i>grønneste</i>	<i>grønn</i>		<i>grønt</i>	<i>grønne</i>	<i>grønnere</i>	<i>grønnest</i>
	<i>pene</i>	<i>penere</i>	<i>peneste</i>	<i>pen</i>		<i>pent</i>	<i>pene</i>	<i>penere</i>	<i>penest</i>
	<i>stjålne</i>	-	-	<i>stjålet/stjålen</i>		<i>stjålet</i>	<i>stjålne</i>	-	-
Nynorsk	<i>grøne</i>	<i>grønare</i>	<i>grønaste</i>	<i>grøn</i>		<i>grønt</i>	<i>grøne</i>	<i>grønare</i>	<i>grønast</i>
	<i>pene</i>	<i>penare</i>	<i>penaste</i>	<i>pen</i>		<i>pent</i>	<i>pene</i>	<i>penare</i>	<i>penast</i>
	<i>stolne</i>	-	-	<i>stolen</i>		<i>stole</i>	<i>stolne</i>	-	-
English	green	greener	greenest	green				greener	greenest
	pretty	prettier	prettiest	pretty				prettier	prettiest
	stolen	-	-	stolen				-	-

In most dialects, some verb participles used as adjectives have a separate form in both definite and plural uses,^[21] and sometimes also in the masculine-feminine singular. In some Southwestern dialects, the definite adjective is also declined in gender and number with one form for feminine and plural, and one form for masculine and neuter.

Attributive adjectives

Definite inflection

In Norwegian, a definite noun has a suffixed definite article (cf. above) compared to English which in general uses the separate word *the* to indicate the same. However, when a definite noun is preceded by an adjective, the adjective also gets a definite inflection, shown in the inflection table above. There is also another definite marker *den* that has to agree in gender with the noun when the definite noun is accompanied by an adjective.^[22] It comes before the adjective and has the following forms

Determinative **den** (bokmål)

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
<i>Den</i>	<i>Den</i>	<i>Det</i>	<i>De</i>

Examples of definite affirmative inflection of adjectives (Bokmål):

- Den **stjålne** bilen (The **stolen** car)
- Den **pene** jenta (The **pretty** girl)
- Det **grønne** eplet (The **green** apple)
- De **stjålne** bilene (The **stolen** cars)

If the adjective is dropped completely, the meaning of the preceding article before the noun changes, as shown in this example.

Examples (Bokmål):

- Den bilen (That car)
- Den jenta (That girl)
- Det eplet (That apple)

- De bilene (Those cars)

Examples of definite comparative and superlative inflection of adjectives (Bokmål):

- Det **grønnere** eplet (The **greener** apple)
- Det **grønneste** eplet (The **greenest** apple)

Definiteness is also signaled by using possessive pronouns or any uses of a noun in its genitive form in either Nynorsk or Bokmål: *mitt grønne hus* ("my green house"), *min grønne bil* ("my green car"), *mitt tilbaketrukne tannkjøtt* ("my pulled gums"), *presidentens gamle hus* ("the president's old house").^[23]

Indefinite inflection

Examples (Bokmål):

- En **grønn** bil (A **green** car)
- Ei **pen** jente (A **pretty** girl)
- Et **grønt** eple (A **green** apple)
- Flere **grønne** biler (Many **green** cars)

Examples of comparative and superlative inflections in Bokmål: "en grønnere bil" (a greener car), "grønnest bil" (greenest car).

Predicative adjectives

There is also predicative agreement of adjectives in all dialects of Norwegian and in the written languages, unlike related languages like German and Dutch.^[24] This feature of predicative agreement is shared among the Scandinavian languages. Predicative adjectives do not inflect for definiteness unlike the attributive adjectives.

This means that nouns will have to agree with the adjective when there is a copula verb involved, like in Bokmål: «være» (to be), «bli» (become), «ser ut» (looks like), «kjennes» (feels like) etc.

Adjective agreement, examples

	Norwegian (bokmål)	English
Masculine	<i>Bilen var grønn</i>	The car was green
Feminine	<i>Døra er grønn</i>	The door is green
Neuter	<i>Flagget er grønt</i>	The flag is green
Plural	<i>Blåbærene blir store</i>	The blueberries will be big

Verbs

Norwegian verbs are not conjugated for person or number unlike English and most European languages, though a few Norwegian dialects do conjugate for number. Norwegian verbs are conjugated according to mainly three grammatical moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive, though the subjunctive mood has largely fallen out of use and is mainly found in a few common frozen expressions.^[25] The imperative is formed by removing the last vowel of the infinitive verb form, just like in the other Scandinavian languages.

Indicative verbs are conjugated for tense: present / past / future. The present and past tense also have a passive form for the infinitive.

There are four non-finite verb forms: infinitive, passive infinitive, and the two participles: perfective/past participle and imperfective/present participle.

The participles are verbal adjectives. The imperfective participle is not declined, whereas the perfect participle is declined for gender (though not in Bokmål) and number like strong, affirmative adjectives. The definite form of the participle is identical to the plural form.

As with other Germanic languages, Norwegian verbs can be divided into two conjugation classes; weak verbs and strong verbs.

Verb forms in Nynorsk
leva (to live) and *finna* (to find)

	<u>Finite</u>				<u>Non-finite</u>					
	<u>Indicative</u>		<u>Subjunctive</u>	<u>Imperative</u>	<u>Verbal nouns</u>	<u>Verbal adjectives (Participles)</u>				
	<u>Present</u>	<u>Past</u>			<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Imperfective</u>	<u>Perfective</u>			
							<u>Masculine</u>	<u>Feminine</u>	<u>Neuter</u>	<u>Plural/Def</u>
<u>Active</u>	<i>lever</i>	<i>levde</i>	<i>leve</i>	<i>lev</i>	<i>leva</i>	<i>levande</i>	<i>levd</i>	<i>levd</i>	<i>levt</i>	<i>levde</i>
	<i>finn</i>	<i>fann</i>		<i>finn</i>	<i>finna</i>	(har) <i>funne</i>	<i>funnen</i>	<i>funnen</i>	<i>funne</i>	<i>funne</i>
<u>Passive</u>	<i>levest</i>	<i>levdest</i>			<i>levast</i>					
	<i>finst</i>	<i>fanst</i>			<i>finnast</i>	(har) <i>funnest</i>				

Verb forms in Bokmål
å leve (to live) and *å finne* (to find)

	Finite				Non-finite			
	Indicative		Subjunctive	Imperative	Verbal nouns	Verbal adjectives (Participles)		
	Present	Past			Infinitive	Imperfective	Perfective	
							Singular	Plural/Def
Active	lever	levde/ levet	leve	lev	leve	levende	levd	levde/ levet
	finner	fant		finn	finne	(har) funnet	funnet	funne
Passive	leves	levdes			leves			
	fins/ finnes	fantas			finnes	(har finnes)		

Ergative verbs

There are ergative verbs in both Bokmål and Nynorsk,^[26] where there are two different conjugation patterns depending on if the verb takes an object or not. In Bokmål, there are only two different conjugations for the preterite tense for the strong verbs, while Nynorsk has different conjugations for all tenses, like Swedish and a majority of Norwegian dialects. Some weak verbs are also ergative and are differentiated for all tenses in both Bokmål and Nynorsk, like «ligge»/«legge» that both means to lie down, but «ligge» does not take an object while «legge» requires an object. «legge» corresponds to the English verb «lay», while «ligge» corresponds to the English verb «lie». There are however many verbs that do not have this direct translation to English verbs.

Ergative verb «knekke» (crack)

Norwegian Bokmål	English
Nøtta knakk	The nut cracked
Jeg knekte nøtta	I cracked the nut
Jeg ligger	I'm lying down
Jeg legger det ned	I'll lay it down

Pronouns

Norwegian personal pronouns are declined according to case: nominative / accusative. Like English, pronouns in Bokmål and Nynorsk are the only class that has case declension. Some of the dialects that have preserved the dative in nouns, also have a dative case instead of the accusative case in personal pronouns, while others have accusative in pronouns and dative in nouns, effectively giving these dialects three distinct cases.

In the most comprehensive Norwegian grammar, Norsk referansegrammatikk, the categorization of personal pronouns by person, gender, and number is not regarded as inflection. Pronouns are a closed class in Norwegian.

Pronouns in Bokmål

Subject form	Object form	Possessive
jeg (I)	meg (me)	min, mi, mitt (mine)
du (you)	deg (you)	din, di, ditt (yours)
han (he)	ham/han (him)	hans (his) hennes (hers)
hun (she)	henne (her)	
det, den (it/that)	det, den (it/that)	
vi (we)	oss (us)	vår, vårt (our)
dere (you, plural)	dere (you, plural)	deres (yours, plural)
de (they)	dem (them)	deres (theirs)

Pronouns in Nynorsk^[27]

Subject form	Object form	Possessive
eg (I)	meg (me)	min, mi, mitt (mine)
du (you)	deg (you)	din, di, ditt (yours)
han (he/it)	han (him/it)	hans (his) hennar (hers)
ho (she/it)	henne/ho (her/it)	
det (it/that)	det (it/that)	
vi/me (we)	oss (us)	vår, vårt (our)
de/dokker (you, plural)	dykk/dokker (you, plural)	dykkar/dokkar (yours, plural)
dei (they)	dei (them)	deira (theirs)

The words for «mine», «yours» etc. are dependent on the gender of the noun it describes. Just like adjectives, they have to agree in gender with the noun.

Bokmål has two sets of 3rd person pronouns. *Han* and *hun* refer to male and female individuals respectively, *den* and *det* refer to impersonal or inanimate nouns, of masculine/feminine or neutral gender respectively. In contrast, Nynorsk and most dialects use the same set of pronouns *han* (he), *ho* (she) and *det* (it) for both personal and impersonal references, just like in German, Icelandic and Old Norse. *Det* also has expletive and cataphoric uses like in the English examples *it rains* and *it was known by everyone (that) he had travelled the world*.

Examples in Nynorsk and Bokmål of the use of the pronoun «it»

Nynorsk	Bokmål	English
Kor er boka mi? Ho er her	Hvor er boka mi? Den er her	Where is my book? It is here
Kor er bilen min? Han er her	Hvor er bilen min? Den er her	Where is my car? It is here
Kor er brevet mitt? Det er her	Hvor er brevet mitt? Det er her	Where is my letter? It is here

Ordering of possessive pronouns

The ordering of possessive pronouns is somewhat freer than in Swedish or Danish. When there is no adjective, the most common word order is the one used in the examples in the table above, where the possessive comes after the noun, while the noun is in its definite form; «boka mi» (my book). If one wishes to emphasize the owner of the noun, the possessive pronoun usually come first. In Bokmål however, due to its Danish origins, one could choose to always write the possessive first «min bil» (my car), but this may sound very formal. Some dialects that have been very influenced by Danish do this too, some speakers in Bærum and the west of Oslo may always use this word order. When there is an adjective describing the noun, the possessive pronoun will always come first; «min egen bil» (my own car).

Norwegian (Bokmål/Nynorsk)	English
Det er <i>mi</i> bok!	It is <i>my</i> book! (owner emphasized)
Kona mi er vakker	My wife is beautiful

Determiners

The closed class of Norwegian determiners are declined in gender and number in agreement with their argument. Not all determiners are inflected.

Determiner forms
egen (own) in Bokmål

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
<i>egen/eigen</i>	<i>egen/eiga</i>	<i>eget/eige</i>	<i>egne/eigne</i>

Determiner forms
eigen (own) in Nynorsk

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
<i>eigen</i>	<i>eiga</i>	<i>eige</i>	<i>eigne</i>

Numerals

Cardinal numbers from 0 to 12 in Nynorsk and Bokmål

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Bokmål	null	en, ei, et	to	tre	fire	fem	seks	sju/syv	åtte	ni	ti	elleve	tolv
Nynorsk		ein, ei, eit						sju					

Cardinal numbers from 13 to 19 in Nynorsk and Bokmål

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Bokmål	tretten	fjorten	femten	seksten	syttten	atten	nitten
Nynorsk							

Particle classes

Norwegian has five closed classes without inflection, i.e. lexical categories with grammatical function and a finite number of members that may not be distinguished by morphological criteria. These are interjections, conjunctions, subjunctions, prepositions, and adverbs. The inclusion of adverbs here requires that traditional adverbs that are inflected in comparison be classified as adjectives, as is sometimes done.

Adverbs

Adverbs can be formed from adjectives in Norwegian. English usually creates adverbs from adjectives by the suffix *-ly*, like the adverb *beautifully* from the adjective *beautiful*. By comparison, Scandinavian languages usually form adverbs from adjectives by the grammatical neuter singular form of the adjective. This is in general true for both Bokmål and Nynorsk.

Example (Bokmål):

- Han er *grusom* (He is *terrible*)
- Det er *grusomt* (It is *terrible*)
- Han er *grusomt* treig (He is *terribly* slow)

In the third sentence, *grusomt* is an adverb. In the first and second sentence *grusomt* and *grusom* are adjectives and have to agree in grammatical gender with the noun.

Another example is the adjective *vakker* (beautiful) which exist in both Nynorsk and Bokmål and has the neuter singular form *vakkert*.

Example (Nynorsk):

- Ho er *vakker* (She is *beautiful*)
- Det er *vakkert* (It is *beautiful*)
- Ho syng *vakkert* (She sings *beautifully*)

Compound words

In Norwegian compound words, the head, i.e. the part determining the compound's class, is the last part. If the compound word is constructed from many different nouns, the last noun in the compound noun will determine the gender of the compound noun. Only the first part has primary stress. For instance, the compound *tenketank* (think tank) has primary stress on the first syllable and is a masculine noun since the noun «tank» is masculine.

Compound words are written together in Norwegian, which can cause words to become very long, for example *sannsynlighetsmaksimeringsestimator* (maximum likelihood estimator) and *menneskerettighetsorganisasjoner* (human rights organizations). Other examples are the title *høyesterettsjustitiarius* (Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, originally a combination of supreme court and the actual title, justiciar) and the translation *En midtsommernattsdrøm* for *A Midsummer Night's Dream*.

If they are not written together, each part is naturally read with primary stress, and the meaning of the compound is lost. Examples of this in English are the difference between a green house and a greenhouse or a black board and a blackboard.

This is sometimes forgotten, occasionally with humorous results. Instead of writing, for example, *lammekoteletter* (lamb chops), people make the mistake of writing *lamme koteletter* (lame, or paralyzed, chops). The original message can even be reversed, as when *røykfritt* (lit. "smoke-free" meaning no smoking) becomes *røyk fritt* (smoke freely).

Other examples include:

- *Terrasse dør* ("Terrace dies") instead of *Terrassedør* ("Terrace door")
- *Tunfisk biter* ("Tuna bites", verb) instead of *Tunfiskbiter* ("Tuna bits", noun)
- *Smult ringer* ("Lard calls", verb) instead of *Smultringer* ("Doughnuts")
- *Tyveri sikret* ("Theft guaranteed") instead of *Tyverisikret* ("Theft proof")
- *Stekt kylling lever* ("Fried chicken lives", verb) instead of *Stekt kyllinglever* ("Fried chicken liver", noun)
- *Smør brød* ("Butter bread", verb) instead of *Smørbrød* ("Sandwich")
- *Klipp fisk* ("Cut fish", verb) instead of *Klippfisk* ("Clipfish")
- *På hytte taket* ("On cottage the roof") instead of *På hyttetaket* ("On the cottage roof")
- *Altfor Norge* ("Too Norway") instead of *Alt for Norge* ("Everything for Norway", the royal motto of Norway)

These misunderstandings occur because most nouns can be interpreted as verbs or other types of words. Similar misunderstandings can be achieved in English too. The following are examples of phrases that both in Norwegian and English mean one thing as a compound word, and something different when regarded as separate words:

- *stavekontroll* (spellchecker) or *stave kontroll* (spell checker)
- *kokebok* (cookbook) or *koke bok* (cook book)
- *ekte håndlagde vafler* (real handmade waffles) or *ekte hånd lagde vafler* (real hand made waffles)

Syntax

Norwegian syntax is predominantly SVO with the subject of the sentence coming first, the verb coming second, and the object after that. However, like many other Germanic languages, it follows the V2 rule, which means that the finite verb is invariably the second element in a sentence. For example:

- "Jeg **spiser** fisk i dag" (I **eat** fish today)
- "I dag **spiser** jeg fisk" (Today, I **eat** fish)
- "Jeg **vil** drikke kaffe i dag" (I **want** to drink coffee today)
- "I dag **vil** jeg drikke kaffe" (Today, I **want** to drink coffee)

Regardless of which element is placed first, the finite verb comes second.

Attributive adjectives always precede the noun that they modify.

Vocabulary

Norwegian vocabulary descends primarily from Old Norse. Middle Low German is the largest source of loanwords, having a marked influence on Norwegian vocabulary from the late Middle Ages onwards (in addition some impact on grammatical structures such as genitive constructions). Many of these loanwords, however, while found in Bokmål and many dialects, are absent from Nynorsk, which retains or has substituted words derived from Old Norse. Nynorsk thus shares more vocabulary with Icelandic and Faroese than does Bokmål.

At present, the main source of new loanwords is English e.g. *rapper*, *e-mail*, *catering*, *juice*, *bag* (itself possibly a loan word to English from Old Norse). Norwegian has also borrowed words and phrases from Danish and Swedish and continues to do so.

The spelling of some loanwords has been adapted to Norwegian orthographic conventions, but in general Norwegianised spellings have taken a long time to take hold. For example, *sjåfør* (from French *chauffeur*) and *revansj* (from French *revanche*) are now the common Norwegian spellings, but *juice* is more often used than the Norwegianised form *jus*, *catering* more often than *keitering*, *service* more often than *sørvis*, etc.

In the case of Danish and Swedish, the spelling in Norwegian of both loanwords and native cognates is often less conservative than the spelling in those languages, and, arguably, closer to the pronunciation. Four of the letters most shunned in Norwegian in comparison to the other Scandinavian languages are "c", "d", "j" and "x". Norwegian *hei* is *hej* in Swedish and Danish; the words "sex" and "six" are *sex* and *seks* in Norwegian, but in Swedish they are both *sex*; Danish words ending in *-tion* end in *-sjon* to reflect pronunciation and many traditional Danish spellings with *d* preceded by another consonant are changed to double consonants, such as in the Danish for water, *vand*, versus Norwegian (Bokmål) spelling *vann*, but "sand" is spelled *sand* in both languages (Norwegian was standardized this way because in some dialects a "d" was pronounced in *sand*, whereas Norwegian speakers pronounced *vann* without a "d"-sound). (The word for water in Nynorsk is *vatn*.)



Norwegian ambulances changed their markings in 2005. This is the old appearance, with the Norwegian *ambulanse*, "Ambulance."

See also

- Differences between the Norwegian and Danish languages
- Noregs Mållag
- Norsk Ordbok
- Det Norske Akademi for Sprog og Litteratur
- Riksmålsforbundet
- Russenorsk
- Tone (linguistics)

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